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Powered by
WRIGHT CYCLONES

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AVIATION for February, 1935

Under the Hood

*Reactions of the student to modern
instrument and basic flight training*

By G. L. Myers

David P. Clark

Myers School of Aeronautics

and Howard Kaster

*As Chief of Instrument Shop
Basic School of Aeronautics*



George Myers looks
out the back of a
student for instru-
ment in a "Post-
warward" flight at
and place



Rate of increase of average instru-
ment flight student. A long period of
disappointment after early success
prevents the final accomplishment of
the objective. The value of the instru-
ment is still the average fully
competent instrument pilot.

may work. The pilot whose early
flight training has been properly con-
sidered and conducted will learn to fly
by instruments quicker and also more
accurately than the pilot whose experi-
ence has been less closely supervised,
and accordingly has not learned the
proper coordination of mind and muscles,
and who is less able to "think through

a maneuver" than he is to fly through it.
At one time the most difficult part of
the training was in developing sufficient
confidence in the instruments for the
student to rely upon them. This is no
longer true. The student now requires
sufficient technical instruction for them
to fully appreciate the instrument as
such. This instruction will be detailed
later. There is, however, some misun-
derstanding between the brains about the
early difficulties in the actual flight in-
struction. Two major difficulties in-
variably develop, namely, timidity on
the part of the student and inability to
interpret the instrument board and re-
act physically to what he sees. When
first under the hood very few men will
interpret their compass correctly and
then in the correct direction to reach a

IN THIS practice of instrument fly-
ing, as in other phases of aviation,
complete and thorough knowledge,
properly applied, is the only pos-
sible safeguard. In addition, this knowl-
edge must be applied with skill and im-
pression for it to be fully effective. The
modern basis of airline operations is
safety, comfort, efficiency, in that
order of importance. The study of in-
strument flying, meteorology, etc., is
not undertaken with the purpose of at-
tempting to fly under impossible or
hazardous conditions, but to allow cer-
tain operations to be completed more
efficiently and to take care of the un-
foreseen in a safe, positive manner.
Learning instrument flying is a long,
deliberate operation, involving many hours
of study and practice, extending over

one instrument upon the standing of another. If this is done it is difficult to see how one can have much confidence in most of modern instruments from the safety viewpoint. Everyone will admit that even such a highly developed mechanism as the modern automobile has limitations, such as requiring low speeds on sharp turns or on a very bumpy road, or a clear field at the wheel. Yet there is something in the nature of many buses which causes them to expect that any mechanical device called in to assist them will function perfectly under all conditions. After discussing such things as navigation turning errors and acceleration errors of compasses, barometric corrections for sensitive altimeters, the fact that the air speed indication is subject to alignment and density errors while in alternate type is not so accurate at low speeds, the necessity for frequent resetting of directional gyros, etc., it is about time to expect some more in store. "Well, if some of these instruments are any good, why do we study some good ones?"

Electrical navigation concepts

Radio theory and the study of electricity are handled in a similar manner. Many of the students have a smattering of radio theory and some have rather more than that must be dispensed.

All students taking the lecture course spend three hours in the instrument room in which each student in the class is divided into six small groups and each group gives a different problem. One group will be concentrating with different types of compasses, another will take up altimeters or air speed indicators. A party may be performing certain experiments with characteristic gyroscopes in order to become familiar with the fundamental gyroscopic principles, and then open an aerial artificial horizon, a directional gyro, and a gyro turn indicator, in order to study the mechanical design of an aerial instrument. Thereafter no student of this party is expected to make an error in content when the play of calling a "directional gyro" a "gyro compass." In fact, each student is expected to be able to explain why a gyro compass and a directional gyro operate on entirely different mechanical principles.

After completing the laboratory course the student should be able to diagnose and correct most of the more common instrumental difficulties. His laboratory work has taught him how to handle a sensitive bar spring, how to make about mileometer adjustments in some cases and in others has developed the habit of keeping careful check bearings without spilling them on the floor and the habit of making a reasonable instrument contain the same number of parts as come out of it.

Radio practice is studied in the

laboratory by the application of the principles developed in the lecture course to actual sending and receiving sets. An experimental setup that was transmitter, W1000, is part of the laboratory as well as several automatic receivers. Students studying to become dispatchers work toward a second class radio telephone operator's license while the others acquire a third class radio telephone license. All students learn code for signaling and comprehension of basic light and radio indications.

By the time flying students are ready for practice it is hoped except that they are familiar with the principles of operation of the various instruments and understand the theory of many of them in such equipment as the X-V-2 and the I-2-3 systems of instrument flying. This knowledge would be of little value without the many hours of flight practice which makes machine handling, yet without a thorough knowledge of instrument theory the student could not recognize the danger of wrong methods which might work in smooth air but fail under bad storm conditions.

Another application is found in the aerial surveying course. As a part of the work in this course one photographic student and an advanced student pilot (accompanied by a flight instructor) go out in a cabin plane to make vertical photographs of a certain area of territory. To do this requires flying at a very constant altitude, starting over a certain mark and continuing on a very steady course. The student pilot knows from his ground work that to do this he must use his compass for studying the direction and that he must not look down at the terrain he intends to fly over. In other words, he is aware of the physical limitations of instruments and the effect of aerodynamics which make both of these necessary before the theory of approach curves is the best developed, and he knows the common sense solution. His first flight is considerably more accurate than anything he could do after long practice if such practice were undertaken without a knowledge of the proper procedure.

Making instrument repair men

Students studying to become radio or instrument repair men also spend a great deal of time in special presentations. A repairman of instruments is considered to be devoted to that work. As far as possible all the students' effort is made along practical lines on radio and instrument equipment from the school supplies.

In all instruments the moving parts are made of points of contact, diaphragms, springs and other delicate parts. The shape, material and other characteristics of these periodical parts must be made and any errors corrected. In time parts must be replaced. The accuracy of instruments is of special importance in the household clock; planes used for

instrument flying practice. The necessary testing, adjusting, and repairing provides an opportunity for a few advanced students to become familiar with work of this sort. Students who wish to do so and whose interests in the elementary courses show that they have the necessary ability and temperament are allowed to apprentice in this work. Between two and five students do this each quarter. To be successful such students must have more than the normal amount of patience. They must have the sort of accuracy that can be had always, anything from bits of metal and they must reason analytically and in terms of scientific principles. When an instrument fails to operate properly this fact must start a train of thought which considers in turn each spring, lever, pivot, etc., from one end of the instrument to the other. The source of trouble must be accurately judged, verified by special tests, and the mechanical details of correction applied with skill.

In addition to acquiring mechanical training the students who specialize in instruments often have interesting contacts with pilots. Sometimes this results in an airplane ride when it can be made to seem reasonable that the instructor of a certain instrument should be allowed to fly a plane. Sometimes they are reminded that pilots work, practice precision in piloting. This was the case a year or two ago when a pilot with several thousand hours reported that the new artificial horizons were indicating twice the true value of heading, indicating impossibility, but at least good for some discussion and a ride.

Flight technique changing

Flying has recently changed from a good weather activity (all or part) to what is practically an all weather affair of position. This change would not have been possible without the development of modern radio and instruments. Years of practice will not enable a pilot to fly "blind" (without outside aid) but modern equipment over the years of practice will enable him to jump over a house. The physical impossibility of flying blind is negligible. The development of instruments has made it possible for a pilot to do what was formerly impossible, but this has added greatly to his inherent knowledge and the amount of pilot. A change in the use of all phases of instrument theory and practice is now necessary but in addition to that there are a number of inherent difficulties which must be met. Meteorology is required of pilots who fly through conditions which are generally avoided—conditions involving fog, low clouds, ice formation, etc. Radio has become a major factor in air transport and the last has not yet been reached, for radio heading beams are now being installed and will soon provide an entirely new set of problems for the pilot radio, and instrument men.

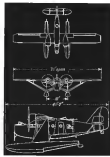


Empty weight, 6,840 lb.
Max. gross, 17,740 lb.
Top speed, 110 m.p.h.
Range, 1,000 miles

Empty weight, 6,840 lb.
Max. gross, 18,750 lb.
Top speed, 110 m.p.h.
Range, 1,000 miles

METAL monospace design has made such spectacular advances in this country during the past few years, that the steady progress achieved in welded structural technique during the same period has received less than its fair share of attention. Certainly the simplicity and efficiency of the new Bellanca Bomber is ample indication that the steel wire type of construction continues to match any other in every effectiveness. The total load-gross weight case of 6,870 which this bomber has as a load plane, or of 6,770 which it achieves when equipped with six plane floats (meets at a tribute in any design discussion. Its top speed of 110 m.p.h. (117 m.p.h. as a seaplane) and its 1,000-mile cruising range with over a ton of military load make it one of the most formidable of modern air weapons.

The power for the Bellanca Bomber is furnished



by two Wright "Cyclone" Engines of 715 hp each, fitted with controllable pitch propellers. These engines are mounted in steel tube mounts, located at the junction of the main upper wing panels and the upper wing wing. The engine nacelles themselves are really a part of the upper skin wing, welded tubular in design, and each wing being covered with aluminum alloy covering, attached by means of three corners. The engine nacelle installation consists of the engine mount, supported on rubber-bushed engine bearings, an oil tank of welded aluminum construction of 30-pal. capacity mounted immediately behind the engine; and a compartment to the rear of the nacelle housing a cylindrical 60-gal. welded aluminum pressure tank. A 90-gal. rectangular gasoline tank, also of welded aluminum construction, is provided in the upper skin wing just forward, making a total of 300 gal. carried

Frontal Action

By Philip Del Vecchio
Assistant Meteorological Service

and Daniel Sayre
Assistant Editor of AVIATION

The second of a series of articles on the fundamentals of air mass meteorology written for the non-specialist. In this installment the interaction between dissimilar masses and the resulting frontal phenomena are discussed and related to the "low."

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Circles.

IN THIS preceding article of this series we developed the basic concept of four types of air masses which interestingly make up the atmosphere of the temperate latitudes. We also explained that these masses could be recognized through the study of certain of their temperature and humidity characteristics long after they had left their original conditioning sources—provided, of course, that the scales be carried out sufficiently high above the earth's surface to eliminate the most variable of the surface modifications.

Now, obviously, as air masses move into the temperate latitudes from their polar and tropical source regions they must come in contact with other air masses of dissimilar characteristics. The resulting impingement battles, as Sir Napier Shaw demonstrates them—between cold and warm, between moist and dry, will vary widely in the intensity of their local actions—depending on the particular combination of types involved and the local terrain. But the most important mechanical principle is no more complex than that warm air in motion encountering a polar air mass will be forced to run up over the colder, denser air. Conversely, a cold mass meeting or overtaking a warmer one will run under it. In either case the warm air undergoes a lifting process and as it rises it cools as it expands (adiabatically) against the reduced pressure at the higher elevations.

Warm air of comparatively high relative humidity is soon apt to reach a temperature at which its water vapor condenses. If it is cooled—no matter what the process. A little later it may reach a point at which the condensation droplets are large enough to fall as rain or snow. We can expect our discontinuities between air masses, then, to be marked by cloud formations, changes in temperature and usually by regions of precipitation, and such is called the case.

However, there are other effects to be considered. The "fronts," as the surfaces of discontinuity between air masses are called, are never the sharp geometrical planes that you would like to think them. There is wandering of temperature differences between contact layers by turbulent mixing. There are differences of direction between isolated portions of the air masses. There are many features of surface relief—features which we have mentioned previously plus an added reaction between air masses encountering obstacles but recently conditioned by a prevailing mass of different temperature. And so on. But the principal hold, and especially during the warm months the bulk of our weather phenomena can be visualized as the lifting of warm, moist air along the invasion between polar and tropical air masses. Which brings

us to an excellent place to attempt a correlation between the air mass approach to weather phenomena and the study of low and high barometric pressure areas on the familiar weather map.

The front and the low

We might reason that an area of low barometric pressure is one marked by cloudless, breezy weather of moderate temperature, precipitation and, by changes in wind direction. Other regions, during winter at least, are generally free from most of these phenomena. Now, if the frontal regions between dissimilar air masses are marked by the same meteorological phenomena as are observed at a low pressure area, this area, then, must be the nearest center for dissimilar air masses.

Specifically, the Norwegian meteorologist who first set forth the air mass concept, talked it to world prominence. His postulate was that over the polar regions an area of high pressure obtained, from which cold, dry air masses were expelled in a westerly and somewhat westerly direction. From the high pressure belt of the Tyndal latitudes, warm, moist air masses traveled northward and eastward. The

line at which these two dissimilar air masses met he called the "Polar Front." And our familiar migratory low pressure area he considered as a tongue-like extension of tropical air over this polar front, which in itself, of course, is constantly shifting its position.

The general figure on page 48 clearly shows a tongue of warm tropical air pushing up over the cold air mass in the north. The advancing warm, moist mass is observed, at the surface, as a region of relatively high temperature and occasional thunderstorms and it strikes the position marked as a "Warm Front" on the diagram. At this point it is obstructed by the colder mass in its path and forced to ascend over it. As the warm air ascends it expands against the decreased pressure, so we have said before, and soon condensation is reached and the consequent rain or snow falls through the colder mass underneath. It must be understood, however, that the warm front is not where the well-defined line such as appears on the drawings. The extension of the warm air is gradual and the "front" may be a region a hundred miles wide marked by fog, clouds and other phenomena which we shall consider later in detail.

To the left of the advancing warm mass, the cold front



Cold-Climate



Warm-Climate and moderate fog



Also-Climate

masses its appearance as the northwesterly winds sweep in under the retreating tropical air and again force its ascent with the usual clouds, turbulence and precipitation. The Polar Front, as this cold front is called, is much more definite and the changes in temperature, wind and weather are much sharper and more severe. It is interesting to note that the rain area (shaded in the diagram) is much more extensive to the east where the warm front becomes in gradual than in the west where the Polar Front (our familiar squall line or wind-shift line) rushes into the equatorial air.

In order that the drawing would not appear too complicated, the isobars, defining the low pressure area at its southerly end in the weather maps, have been omitted, but the center of the low would be near the point where the warm front joins the cold front.

Flying through it

The figure at the top of the drawing is a semi-section of the phenomena as observed in the northern portion of the storm, out of the warm sector. The sequence of weather changes to a pilot flying westward along this line at an altitude of about 6,000 ft. would be about the following: At the beginning of the flight he would observe the high cirrus clouds approximately 30,000 ft. above him and as he descended his flight westward the cirrus would gradually become in alto-cirrus and then to alto-stratus—the cirrus constantly lowering—where he would soon enter the warm mass which was sweeping over the colder mass beneath. Soon the alto-stratus would become stratus and then descend accompanied by rain or snow. As he pushed ahead the precipitation would stop and the raindrops become drizzle, stratus or alto-stratus and soon the sky would clear entirely. He would experience no severe polar front because he would not be crossing the warm sector at the ground.

On the other hand, a flight through the storm shown at the bottom of the figure and which would take him through the warm sector, would go something like this. The take-off would be in cold air and the barometric thrust would be present at that time, but the clouds would thicken and lower much more rapidly than in the former case. There would soon be a rather abrupt transition from the clear cold to a heavy rainstorm region with frequent precipitation. After a few he would fly out of this rainstorm into the clear sector of the warm air mass. There might be a few showerheads, products of the heat and moisture of the mass and some haze, but in the whole, fairly good flying. Then suddenly the high of showerheads or the squall cloud itself would become visible and the pilot would plunge in the actual cold front, the

by excessive turbulence, rapid fall in temperature and quick clearing after highly variable weather.

In many storms which enter the United States, the polar mass forces itself under the warm mass sector and moves it bodily from the ground. In this case the storm has become what is called "occluded" and the polar front becomes an occluded front. As soon as this happens the low pressure area disappears, since the warm air which is the nucleus of the storm has been cut off.

Why the tongue of warm air should protrude outward from the main mass and intrude on the polar mass is still controversial. In fact it has not yet been decided as to whether it is the warm mass that begins the incursion or the cold polar air which pushes down and originates the cold front.

We can now visualize members of these "contender" strings out along the polar front which surrounds the entire earth. Each has its own warm sector and polar front and as such the warm air is fluid and weather changes take place in varying degrees of intensity.

In many ways this comparison, this pattern, of weather is a reinforced process in one of the greatest general advantages possessed by the air mass

and the pressure area system of meteorology.

American air masses

As far as we have generally outlined the broadest aspects of air masses and have separated them into Polar and Tropical, and Continental and Maritime. We have seen that the interaction between a polar and tropical mass results in storm conditions with delicate fronts which are generally possible to recognize. It is now necessary to know something of the names, origins and characteristics of the particular masses which affect the United States.

The great land areas north of the United States—more specifically Canada and Alaska—supply the source for the development of the most dominating air masses which invade the country—the Polar Continental. In winter these land areas support an exceedingly low temperature and so extreme dryness which is transmitted to the air alone it is so moisture deficient.

The region over which these masses form, as we mentioned, is well protected from influences which might modify the cold and dryness. In the first place the entire area is almost unbrokenly covered with ice and snow, and in the second place no warm Pacific air

can get to over the mountains to the west in sufficient quantities to make any marked disturbance. The combination of snow covering, stagnation and active radiation of heat from the ground produces the most active source of weather trouble in the United States. As mentioned before, the general characteristics are extreme cold and dryness. When a mass of this sort moves southwestward and toward the sea, usually they do so, so steadily that frequently between temperately easy, until the polar air moves off the eastern coast.

Opposed to these characteristics are those of the tropical mass which originates in the waters of the Gulf of Mexico. Over this area, regardless of whether the air originates or keeps moving, the mass acquires a high relative and specific humidity at the surface and, as a result, copious rain. Since these masses will not be studied in detail in this article, it will be necessary to state that due to certain actions, such as swirling, the Tropical Gulf mass, as it is called, becomes lighter due to the altitude increases; and the combination of high humidity in the surface and low humidity aloft gives the mass an "unstable" quality which becomes a factor in the polar front and which will be discussed in our next installment.

Similarly, Polar Pacific air masses which become conditioned over the North Pacific, while being relatively cold compared to tropical masses, have the high humidity characteristics of maritime air masses. Polar Pacific plays a great part in the weather of the entire West Coast and even invades the United States as far eastward as the Atlantic Coast—in modified form at times.

In waters counterpart, *Polar Atlantic*, is originated in the area north of the ship lanes and is for all practical purposes a mirror image of *Polar Continental* which has gone to sea for a voyage and returned with increased humidity. It comes back slightly modified in its temperature, but tends more toward and is a feature in the weather of the Atlantic seaboard.

Two more masses remain to be described, but neither of these are so well recognized, nor do they exert the influence that the others do over American weather.

The region of our Southwest, over the great wet deserts and the land to the south, Mexico, forms a definite expressing area for Tropical Continental, but which is extremely dry and cloudless air mass which is a factor in the Southwest and at far west, perhaps, in the Mississippi valley.

Tropical Pacific, conditioned in the southern corner of that mass, is a typical maritime current, warm and moist, but not nearly so effective in the generating of disturbances in Tropical Gulf.



Quotes from the Aviation Commission

THIS IS QUOTE BY THE
COMMISSIONER

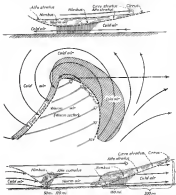
Barely does a single product of the Federal Printing Office contain the complete story of an industry's relationship to the United States Government. Such is the case, however, with the report of the Federal Aviation Commission. Beyond its unassuming covers this volume contains not only the record of the present state of the aviation business with respect to the government, but a chart upon which the future course of this relation may be based. We give here a much abbreviated version treating only the most vital issues which it discusses.

hurry and speed, by day and by night, with such comfort and convenience to the user of the service as anything like a broad network as that provided by our major airlines is appears, on the other hand, that a considerable part of the nation's air transport system is running at a steady loss, and that operations cannot continue profitably under present conditions.

American civil aviation represents the largest adaptation of aircraft to the role of service as units of a fleet that the record of world experience can offer. We do not believe that there is a fair military flying man in the world than the typical graduate of the Air Corps Training Center, and his capacities increase with intensive "service experience."

Air Transport

Air mail payments and some paid in direct aid to be served by air mail to be put on a flat, round-offage basis with



An idealized picture of the movement of a low pressure area (center V. Southwest). At the top is a section taken through the area described in the text of this article. Below the plot is a section taken through the surface section or warm sector.

The 1934 Paris Salon

American products were notably absent, but their influence was plainly evident in many designs.

By Dr. Alois Robert Böhm

Attorney's Paris Correspondent

THE history of the Paris Salon is, in a sense, the history of aviation itself, and it was with this idea in mind that M. Ginet, who organized the first of these exhibitions in 1880 and still is active, exhibited at this, the sixteenth, a complete collection of photographs of all previous shows. It has been indicated in these shows to present a picture of world aviation in a French setting, and the most recent, which closed only in December, was no exception. It is, therefore, extremely unfortunate that the American aeronautics industry, which has so much to show Europe, was represented by such a limited number of exhibits. Only the Pratt & Whitney and the Bendix Companies had exhibits and visitors were deeply disappointed at the absence of representatives of the famous American civil airplanes, some of which are being ordered on European airlines, and the new American military types. It is naturally hoped that, at the next show in 1936, it will be possible for Europeans to see the latest American types which are more than ever before necessary to complete the picture of world aviation.

After visiting the 1934 Salon, it cannot be denied that the American methods of design and manufacture have a strong influence on the products of European constructors, although the reverse has been true in former years. Martin, Douglas, Lockheed and many other manufacturers would have been covered that their technique has found great appreciation in the old world.

For example, the Breguet "Felix", which gained victory at the main contest of the Grand Prix, bears a distinct resemblance to the Douglas transport. It is a low-wing monoplane with retractable undercarriage, and two Gnome Rhone K 14 supercharged and geared engines. It is expected that, when this machine is flown, its performance will be equal to that of the best American twin engine commercial planes. A strong resemblance to the Lockheed Electra was noted in the Montgomerie exhibited by the Bristol Company of England.

Flying becoming more popular

Welding appears to be more common in aircraft construction and the streamlined structure of a high-winged plane was indicated in the very extensive exhibit of the U.S.S.R. Compared with the Russian exhibit shown on past years in Berlin, the Soviet aircraft and engine industry has made remarkable progress. Russian construction did not appear extraordinary, but the method of manufacturing and of controlling material and fabricating methods have reached a



very high level. Judging from the development of Russian aeroplanes, on the basis of this exhibit, it is apparent that the Russian designer should now be able to attack highly advanced problems without being limited by insufficient materials and mechanical manufacturing techniques.

The Breguet winning method was not only exhibited at the stand of the French Build Company but also among the Italian exhibits was a Savoia Marchetti amphibian, constructed by the Breda-Siemens project.

In general the Paris Salon of 1934 confirms the impression of the 1932 exposition that low-wing monoplane construction is making rapid progress and that this type of machine is preferred not only for civil but for military airplanes. Even the British designers are advancing more and more to this formula.

Metal construction, including metal covering of wings and fuselages showed wider application. The materials used are mainly light alloys of the duralumin type, but sheet steel appears to be retaining the interest of the designer. The use of magnesium alloys and particularly of magnesium castings for wheels, brackets and shock absorber frames, as well as other accessories has seemed to be new. That in engine construction the use of these alloys has become more and more common and the exhibition of light alloy fuselages indicated this possibility has reached a high degree of perfection, particularly in Great Britain.

Engine development of recent years tends toward the air-cooled types of power plants and the accomplishments of such manufacturers as Gnome-Rhone, Gnome-Wright, Pratt & Whitney, Bristol, Siemens, Walter, and Armstrong have made it difficult for the water or liquid-cooled types to follow. The three-valve construction used in the Bristol is a marked improvement and the reduced frontal area, combined with NACA or Venturi ring cowling has contributed substantially to aero-dynamic progress. There is a firm hope Hispano is now making the Wright engine, that Hispano exhibited 6, 16- and 24-cyl. air-cooled types, and Levaure is making air-cooled engines, indicating improvement in the actual structure. Builders of liquid-cooled engines such as Hispano and Lorraine are also progressing and the Pratt



and four 1,000-hp. water-cooled types are truly remarkable. The Hirth-Hoyer exposition called "Kottak" is unquestionably a masterpiece.

David designs noteworthy

David engine progress is also noticeable. The water-cooled, two-person type Japhet Jones IV and V is now in regular service in Germany, manufactured under license in France by the Compagnie Lilloise des Moteurs and by Napier in England. Inco-Frencher showed an Aero 200 hp, 6-cyl., in-line engine which operates on gas, oil or propane by the use of the Inco-Brande catalyst. The air-cooled version of the David type also seemed to hold promise and the Clerget convertible radial diesel of 650 hp shown by the French Air Ministry has performed very satisfactorily on test flights. Bissolati showed a radial air-cooled diesel of 650 to 700 hp. It is unfortunate that the achievement of the Paillard diesel in America was so suddenly interrupted by the death of Captain Woolson, its designer.

A great deal of importance is being attached to variable blade propellers. The Hamilton-Standard, manufactured in France by Hispano, and the Sauer are regarded as the most approved designs. The position of wood or metal blades has been discarded and the Scherzer system of protecting wooden blades by a Bakelite sheathing has opened new possibilities for wood or poplar blade construction. This project also has been and in the testing phase of the wings of the Hispano high speed, low-wing Sporter for four passengers, which had one of the most interesting structures at the Paris show.

The three engine Japhet J-33 in final, largest among the exhibited planes, dominated the show by its size. This colossal power plant was driven to the exhibit of the old biplane covered wooden biplane which was used in causing the people assembled at Tichyevsk and a copy of the sphere of the balloon in which Froustov was captured 19300 m. Another point of interest was the Savoia Marchetti low wing plane with 1100 hp. Fast engine in which the Italian pilot Agella established the world's speed record at 705.20 km

As Seen by an American

Like a small boy showing off his muscle, each nation proudly displayed its military air strength.

By Rex Martin

Assistant Director of Air Commerce

THE Fourteenth International Aeronautical Exposition held in the Grand Palais in Paris Nov. 18 to Dec. 2, 1934, would have interested any American.

What was shown there at once confirmed and denied the various things about European aviation that are popular current thoughts of Americans who find in news of aviation. The show was opened by the President of France, and by pushing a button but by personal notes examination of every exhibit in the building, for the French are always polite. The show was flanked by the bands of military and naval aviation, and attended by the leaders of civil aviation, plus the American, British and other ambassadors, each with their military, naval and commercial aides. Those who had no military business were formal morning dress. All in all aviation in Europe was in a state of high alert.

The French exhibit, which quite naturally dominated the exposition, was arranged in the center of the salon on the west floor. These were surrounded by German, British, Polish, Czechoslovak, Italian and American displays. Without exception the most outstanding equipment of each nation was that designed primarily for war use.

I do not recall, in my many years of observation of similar expositions in America, ever seeing more than one or two military airplanes, and those were in no way the outstanding planes in the show. As I looked about I gained the impression that each nation was jealously interested in showing its military progress, something after the fashion of the crowd at the state of the fair. For those who would question this impression, permit me to point out that machine guns are not mounted on commercial aircraft, and those were in great numbers. Moreover, out of 68 planes in the show there were but seven transport planes shown. Of nine seaplanes, only two were of the transport type, while three were definitely military.

Among the small transports the most outstanding in my opinion was the German Heinkel He-70, in which I had the great fortune to fly over a great part of Germany. The assumed top speed is 234 m.p.h.

In neither the touring planes was the largest in the exhibition. All were fitted with devices of various kinds to increase lift and maintain control beyond stalling speeds. The inverted line, air-cooled motor had the said so far as power plants were concerned, and a great many two-engine light planes were shown. This is a development which American designers could well afford to consider for the private use of the airplane. I personally would prefer the safety of sustained flight on one motor of such horse-

constant-speed control is in proper working condition).

More supercharging

The development of supercharged engines has been progressing more or less equally in several directions. It is rated horsepower and critical altitude. Power must ultimately increase to re-performing increases because the maximum power required for flight increases with altitude. However, the supercharging capacity of present engines is considerably below that which is required by the permissible engine power. The best interests of transport and military aviation would be served in raising the altitude for full throttle at cruising power to nearly the height which gives the highest speed with that power. For modern airplanes, this "optimum" altitude is about 30,000 ft. higher than now available. When supercharging capacity once has "caught up" with engine power, it would be most desirable to operate in engine power and supercharging capacity should coordinate to meet approximately this desired cruising condition.

Power per passenger constant

The increase in performance of modern airplanes can be attributed to new engine design, constant-speed propellers, and a moderate degree of supercharging. Horsepower per passenger has not increased. Further increase

in performance is possible in an occasional manner through increased supercharging which will permit flight at higher altitudes. Increasing power is unnecessary, and is generally uneconomical. Aerodynamic design of airplanes and the constant-speed propellers have established both the need for and the capability of using (very) high-altitude engines.

On to the atmosphere

The level-flight cruising chart given in Fig. 25 has been extended well up into the stratosphere to 60,000 ft. altitude. The effect of raising it unerringly is clearly shown in Fig. 26, in which there has been plotted the velocity variation with altitude for various values of engine power and engine revolutions for constant-pitch setting. The rpm curves are given values that would be obtained with the present constant-pitch propeller setting. The actual values at the higher altitudes would be reduced, of course, in the choice of a larger propeller and higher pitch setting. For a constant-speed propeller the constant rpm line on Fig. 26 would curve up, approximately to constant Mach angle lines.

By flying at higher altitudes there is a large possible gain in cruising velocity at constant power for the higher powers, but little or no gain for lower powers. The altitude for greatest speed at the maximum speed

power ratio of the airplane increases with power along the line so indicated in Fig. 26. A fan is speed ratio and the airplane is cruised above this altitude. The cruising speed at 75 per cent power (1,067 h.p.) increases from 170 m.p.h. at an altitude of 20,000 ft. to 14,000 ft. (the present self-determining cruising altitude). The speed at this power then increases to 235 m.p.h. at 30,000 ft. and finally to 266 m.p.h. at the optimum altitude of 40,000 ft. above which the speed decreases. At the present full-throttle cruising altitude of 15,000 ft., approximately 1,511 hp. would be required to develop 225 m.p.h. cruising speed, and 2,000 hp. would be required to cruise at 264 m.p.h. This highest possible cruising speed (264 m.p.h.) is obtained at the present engine setting power by supercharging alone, but would require nearly twice the power if obtained at 14,000 ft. The level of performance is indicated by places with increased supercharging capacity is fairly accurately obtained by a study of this figure. The need for additional supercharging capacity is quite clear.

Cruising at the higher altitudes can be controlled through changing diameters of the propeller pitch setting, in the guide, in the same manner as done at lower altitudes. The added need for constant-speed propellers is brought out by the wide variation of maximum wheel the propeller must handle. It is also desirable that means be provided in the engine for reducing manifold pressure for operation at lower altitudes.

Altitude vs. air speed

The thrust and descent will cause reduction in net speed as altitude increases, so that the top velocity and altitude for best top velocity will be increasingly lower than those for best cruising flight at the top length developed. Higher altitude flight is practical only for long trips. The correct trip velocity can be determined in the most accurate manner previously outlined in cruise articles. The effect of decrease in weight is quite appreciable at the higher altitudes, hence the performance shown in Fig. 26 for the design gross weight will improve considerably as fuel is consumed.

We are now on the threshold of an interesting and fruitful field in cruising operation and control, and have assumed that operation at desired conditions will naturally be rewarded in a definite manner by the resulting top cruising performance achieved. It is believed that, with knowledge of the principles of cruising operation and control for present airplanes and with an understanding of the influences of weight changes, constant-speed propellers, and highly-supercharged engines, the pilot or operator personnel will be well equipped to handle efficiently all problems of cruising operation.

EDITORIALS

AVIATION

Foundations of Policy

THE REPORT of the Federal Aviation Commission is out at last. For more than six months the aeronautical world has been waiting for it with varying degrees of anxiety. Its terms have been the subject of the most astonishing amount of rumor, some of which was innocent guesswork, some composed of positively honest attempts to forecast the Commission's report from observing the nature of the testimony taken and the demeanor of the members in receiving it, and some apparently purely malignant and rooted in a desire to create dissension within the Commission's ranks and to avert any useful outcome of its labors possible. The exact motive for the fabrication of this last type of story we have never quite been able to fathom. Perhaps it doesn't matter now. Apparently the Commission went ahead and did its job to the best of its ability without permitting itself to be seriously disturbed by any of the tales that were being told about it.

It will take some time for this report to be available to follow the full significance of this report and it appears to us with complete interest. One or two things are evident immediately. It is quite plain that the Commission has taken the broad terms of its endorsement very seriously and has made a very earnest attempt to acquaint itself with all phases of the aeronautical problem. It is plain too that the work was arduous, whether as the spirit of propaganda or promotion of any particular led, or in that either of justification or of demonstration of past practices. The Commission declined to seek out controversy for its own sake. It proceeded with an eye to the future alone and with an honest desire to find the ways in which and the terms on which aviation can best promote the public welfare.

We who believe in aviation and have proven it through long association could ask for nothing better than that. Except where aircraft render a real and vital public service they cannot survive. We believe that they have such a service to render in many employments, and we believe that the Commission has sought them out and analyzed them with considerable skill.

It is too much to expect that so exhaustive a study and so vast a body of conclusion and recommendation will command universal support, and we have no idea that the commissioners themselves were to acquire as

to expect it. A host of factors will rise up to object to particular recommendations or to selected phases in the discussion. In more general terms, the report will be attacked by conservatives, and by those who for definite reasons of personal interest are opposed to the spread of aviation, as having made recommendations that we too generous. It will be attacked by the more extreme and optimistic of aeronautical enthusiasts as far too conservative. We do not believe that either set of criticisms is justifiable. Those who walk in the middle of the road are liable to be the targets of half-baked phoned indiscriminately from either side, but the middle of the road is nevertheless likely to be the best and safest one.

We have no idea that this report is a perfect document. We find some things in it that are at first sight disappointing, and some sections that are surprising. Taking it as a whole, however, it seems to us as good a piece of work as could have been hoped for. If it can be accepted as a whole as government policy the results are likely to be far better for aviation and for the people interested in it, and for all the users of its services and for the American people as a whole, than under any other coherent scheme of policy that is at all likely to be produced as an alternative. The report speaks for itself and we have no desire to gloss its aims, but we would suggest that those who may encounter either disappointment or surprise as they read it should hold their criticisms in abeyance until they have studied the document as a whole.

Taken by itself, it will stand as a first-class reference work on the state of American aviation and the nature of its problems and of the problems of the government's relationship to it at the end of 1934. But it was not simply to produce a work of reference, but to develop an air policy, that the Commission was appointed. The report will become a policy only when Congress has enacted the appropriate legislation and when the executive departments have made the changes in their own practices that the Commission recommended.

At this point the task comes to be one for the Commission alone, and becomes the concern of every member of the interested public. The recommendations have been made. Public interest will be a powerful

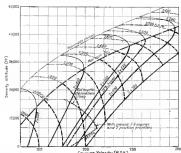


Fig. 26. Deviation D.C.F., Gross weight, 10,000 lb. High-altitude cruising chart showing the variation of velocity with altitude for various constant values of engine power and engine revolutions. The "optimum" altitudes for maximum performance with, and without, supercharging, are also shown. Constant rpm lines show the existing current aviation engine propeller diameter and criteria as on the D.C.F. These are selected not as the best performance but as the best constant-speed propellers. Constant altitude lines fall approximately along the constant rpm lines here shown.

the crawling itself, (3) a set of non-traversable flag stands in the rear by which the amount of crawling can be regulated at will by the pilot.

The ship, the result of three years of slow development work, are to be delivered in the mid of 1935.

New A.T.C.

THE interesting two-place cabin "Equestre" built by the Panhard Aircraft Corp., of Kansas City, Mo., which was described in *Aviation* for August, 1934, has been recently awarded an A.T.C. by the Bureau of Air Commerce. Powered with the V-65 hp. engine it is priced at \$1,575 with the LeRhoad 79 hp. at \$1,675.

Young Veteran

IT IS hardly the custom of this department to print the pictures of airplanes designed six years ago. The

British Made DeHavilland Gipsy Major 120 hp. engine, for European use, while 99 were at will be equipped with Kinner engines, principally the B-3 Model of 125 hp, although some of the B-5 160 hp. model are said. One hundred and twenty from the total of 122 are for governmental services.

Steamman 75

THE 1934 Webster, Kinner, engine used by the Steamman Aircraft Company on the production of 41 primary trainers for the Navy and under way. The machine, of typical steady Steamman design throughout, are to be powered with 200 hp. Wright Whirlwinds.

The fuselage and tail group are of welded steel tube construction, fabric covered. The wings have spars and ribs of spruce, aluminum alloy sheeted skin, are also fabric covered. Aluminum alloy of the fabric-covered riveted aluminum alloy frame-work type. The tail consists of landing gear

and the tail wheel are both also equipped.

Besides the factors of performance given above, the Model 75 has proven an ability to take off and clear a fifty foot obstacle within 230 ft. in still air with full load and to land over the same within the same distance.

Full speed of 160 mph.
Climbing speed at 10,000 ft. 110 mph.
Climb in 1000 ft. 15 sec.
Service ceiling 15,000 ft.
Endurance at full speed 4 hours
Endurance at 100 mph 5 hours
Range at full speed 510 miles
Service range (100 mph) 510 miles

Commercial Radio Compass

THIS Kinner Radio Compass for aerial navigation, manufactured by the Daughdill Aerial Camera Corporation, has recently been made available for the use of air transport lines, commercial drag service operators and private flyers. It is of the type that enables the pilot to establish and follow a direct course by means of the signals at the geographic locations by commercial and private radio stations, as well as by means of the signals of the government stations along federal airways. It provides radio facilities in areas where the established airway facilities do not exist and enables the pilot independent of the fixed airways when he desires to fly away from the beam to avoid specially undesirable conditions, or for any other reason. Besides serving as a heading device, the Kinner compass may be used as a precision indicator in the air, or on the ground in the event of a forced landing. It may be used when flying either in or from a selected station.

Developed at Wright Field, Dayton,



The Kinner 10 primary trainer of which 41 are being built for the Navy at Wichita.

Ohio, by Geoffrey G. Kinner under the direction of Capt. Albert Hightenberger, the early prototype of the commercial model has been tested under a wide range of service conditions, made a key unit of the Air Corps blind landing system and at present is being built in large numbers for service installation.

In the new commercial model turn and bearing of wave bands have been simplified by eliminating a number of operators entirely and by making others automatic.

To establish a course is had whether the pilot wishes a government or commercial station on his course or at his destination, taken in on the signals or program broadcast by that station by means of wavebands, and then continues from the airwaves to the bearing indicator. The position of the pointer on the large face dial of the bearing indicator indicates the direction of the wave in relation to the desired course. The pointer at Zero indicates the plane is "on course." If the pointer is to the left of Zero the plane is headed to the right of the course and correction is made by applying into marker. If the pointer is to the right of Zero the opposite is true of course.

Having maneuvered the pointer to Zero the pilot merely has to hold a turn, checking his drift by comparison between the magnetic and radio compass bearings. If the rotatable loop is used, the Kinner Radio Compass may be employed to establish position with no alteration of the airplane's flight path. The loop is rotated by a hand wheel and Zero bearings have been obtained from ends of two opposite stations. Rotating mechanism includes a 360-degree scale readable to one degree. By means of this scale each indicated bearing can be quickly read and then drawn on a map with reference to the magnetic compass course. The intersection of the lines indicates the airplane's position.

The Kinner Radio Compass consists

of two principal units—the compass unit, or the bearing indicator, the remote control box, and the fixed or rotatable loop. All together, with flexible cables and wires, the device weighs approximately 50 lb. A dynamometer and spring layers are required in addition to the above. The direct voltage is supplied from a 12-volt amperes starter storage battery. The radio supply is obtained from a dynamotor operating from the starting battery.

The commercial type receiver is not occupied with what not only drive weight and space over other models but operates entirely by remote control. It has a frequency range of 150 to 1,500 kc in the following bands: 150-300 kc, 250-300 kc, 450-900 kc, and 1,500 to 1,800 kc. The compass receiver unit

includes heterodyne receiver with five tubes and automatic or manual volume control. The other tubes are included in the direction finder circuit. It requires only about 1,000 m. of space.

All tuning and switching is concentrated on the remote control box panel, which includes a tuning dial graduated with the bands used, a pair of wipers, a jack for the headphones, and a handle for tuning. This box requires only about 100 cu. in. of space and can be located wherever it is most convenient for the pilot. Bands are changed merely by turning a switch. This automatically enters the necessary changes in the loop and receiver. The wiper and switches are steady irrespective of voice modulation up to 500 per cent.

The also one dynamotor type bearing indicator has a large face dial, is easily readable, and is designed for installation on the instrument board. The face is finished in black and the pointer and dial scale are painted with luminous material and is designed for use through an arc of 270 deg. It may be used as a turn indicator to a certain degree.

The rotatable loop, with a diameter of 21 in., produces a drag of only 4 lb. at 140 mph and a drag of 8 lb. at 250 mph when in position at right angles to the direction of travel. It is easily dismountable. The rotatable loop isolates through 360 degrees, is turned by a hand wheel and may be locked in any position. The loop is used in conjunction with a standard mast antenna projecting 5-8 ft. above the fuselage, or a fixed wave antenna not more than 10 ft. and not less than 6 ft. in length.

Semibattery bearings under storage operating conditions may be received at a distance of 400 miles overland and 700 miles over water, at frequencies can under 500 kc. Under favorable conditions bearings have been established at a distance of 1,500 miles.

Freighters

A NEW modification of the Curtiss-Wright Condor, the Model CT-32 basically similar to the Air Corps Type VC-38, has been designed for optional use as a 16-place troop transport, an efficient ambulance, as a cafeteria, or as a freight carrier. Note in the photo at the left the unusual bent and the large door opening made possible by folding back a panel in the front deck.

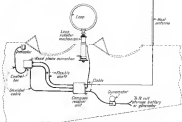


An airplane in close proximity to the ground vehicle that this machine is used after its first appearance the Curtiss-Wright Condor is a new high speed carrier. The plane is now being developed for use in 1935.

when an American aircraft achieved an export sales record of well over 100 units during a twelve month period. It deserves a place in this or any other part of the magazine. Such is the case with the Plant lightness trainer, still in production by the Consolidated Aircraft Corporation of Buffalo, which has just completed its last export year although its first appearance was made at the Chicago Aviation Show of December 1934.

Foreign orders for the Plant taken during the year 1934 totaled 102 complete units, equipped and material for twenty to be manufactured under license in France, and approximately fifteen equivalent airplanes in spare parts. The corporation orders 1025 with orders for 30 complete planes, plus equipment and material for twenty additional and projects for the next quarter the 1934 record export volume.

Twenty-five were equipped with the



A typical installation of the Kinner Radio Compass in an aircraft plane.



Condor modified for freight or ambulance use.



"Listening-in" to a precision bearing.



FIRE is brought back into



A flashlight with a long neck to be useful just for the engine inspector

THE MAINTENANCE NOTEBOOK

In cooperation with the Maintenance Committee
of the Aeronautical Chamber of Commerce

Listening for Trouble

By combining an ordinary physician's stethoscope with a more sophisticated "pick-up" from an old-fashioned vitrolar, the instrument shop of United Air Lines (based in Chicago) developed a device to detect trouble in the ball bearings of gyroscope assemblies. By applying the flexible point of the pick-up to the bearing housing of a gyro in rapid rotation on the test bench, the bearing noise, previously audible only by a trained ear, is amplified sufficiently to that it is quite possible, with a little practice, to differentiate between a perfect bearing and one in which wear has begun to develop. By this means it is possible to anticipate trouble and to replace bearings before there is any possibility of failure in service.

Bells for Compressed Air Hose

COMPRESSED air hose leaking about an shop or hangar floor is not only wasteful, but a distinct menace at hazard. The problem of keeping air readily available and yet out of the way when not in use has been met by ILL's maintenance department at Adams by installing a couple of light bells (somewhat similar to those used for garden hoses) on the wall just inside the main hangar door. The hose is coiled "above" that is, the inner end is connected to the roof rails, which in turn is connected to the compressed air line through a reducing, air tight coupling. Then, any length of hose may be paid out from the reel in the point where it is to be used. A single crank is provided to reel in hose.

Light for Close Quarters

MECHANICS in Quaker's Service hangar at Chicago find many uses for a long-necked portable lamp made of an ordinary hand flashlight and a piece of small diameter steel copper tubing. In place of the usual reflector, one end of the tube is inserted in the case, and the other carries a miniature socket for the bulb. An insulated wire through the center of the tube, completes the electrical circuit. The tube is about 2 ft. long (the length may be varied, of course, to fit any required condition), it is flexible enough to be bent into odd shapes to reach inaccessible locations, and the small G D at tube, bulb and socket make it possible to put the light inside of



ONE

With the wheel hub secure plate secured, assembly is inserted in axle and wheel nut being jack placed under the wheel post



TWO

Jack is placed under the tire then another wheel nut is tightened to take the load. Jack is then removed and wheel nut regular loading gear jack used



THREE

Wheel nutted for secured by inserting jack on regular post

cylinders through spark plug holes, into rocker boxes or other places where space is limited.

Wheel Jack Auxiliary

BACK in the days when Lorington had a Fluorac or two in service, a gadget was devised to get around the very difficult problem of getting a jack under the landing gear when one of the struts was bent. Clarence Eichen, now at National Airways, has dug a few pieces of it out of the service, and sends them in for what ever they are worth in anyone's hand with a similar problem.

The tool is simple and easily made. It consists of a short steel tube rounded at a diameter that will just slip easily into the wheel axle of the airplane. Welded to the center end is another pipe, insulated by steel plate seals as shown at left. Passed through the tube under the jacked are two steel rods about 1/8 inch in diameter. These enter the ground. Each carries a flat "foot" or pad welded to the lower end. The series of pictures shows clearly the way it is used. Operators who service ships on airfields should find a similar tool a useful addition.

Reclaiming Cleaning Fluid

WHILE large quantities of cleaning fluid are used daily to clean oil and dirt from airplanes and engine parts it is worth while to consider means of reclaiming. Fortunately, the processes are not overly involved nor are existing in those required for cleaning lubricating oils for reuse.

Readers will recall H. P. Taylor's "art" at the old American Airlines plant in Dallas. He changed his and several others in an old boiler set back of the shop, heated the boiler by burning the sludge from previous reclaiming under a mild condenser (the distillate is a usable power oil). In this way, with very little labor, he was able to reclaim some 90 per cent of his cleaning fluid.

But distillation is not necessary, in the opinion of Clarence Eichen, National Airways' maintenance superintendent. Up in Boston where he overhauls Leominsters and Seisians, he has made a simple and effective reclaimer for Varsol out of a couple of old oil drums. Referring to the drums, the top half of the unit is made from half a steel drum. It is, in effect, a large funnel, for a short piece of pipe has been welded, as shown, into the end. Over the open end is a cover, part welded on, part hinged. Four thin spring clips are welded on the sides to hold the funnel in place on top of a regular oil drum. On the latter, the sludge is removed from the end long and covered into the side wing. A few layers of old felt, sand and charcoal are laid into the bottom of the funnel, and the outfit is ready to operate.

An used Varsol comes back from the shop it is simply dumped into the funnel. As it works its way down, the solid particles are strained out and it drops through to the drum below. The lower half of the drum forms a settling tank, in which the sludge slowly settles and allows the clean Varsol to come to the top where it can be siphoned off through the spout. When the sludge reaches the spout level the drum is pulled out and sold (for the used 50 cents) and a new one substituted. Before reusing an average saving of 90 per cent.

Fire Extinguisher Unit

A SIMPLE and A frame fitted with a loop handle makes a convenient means of handling a pair of 1-lb. Pyrolox fire extinguishers around TWA's planes, upon and fuel jacks at Kansas City. Sheet steel panels bolted to the welded angle-iron frame carry the regular Pyrolox unit type brackets.



National Airways' Varsol reclaiming plant



A portable fire extinguisher unit



THE BUYERS' LOG BOOK

AVIATION's Card Index of New Equipment

This department is equipped to help readers locate manufacturers of any parts, accessories or materials

MATERIALS

Koroconal

R. F. Genrich Company,
Akron, Ohio

KOROCONAL, a new plastic material, although not the same as rubber in chemical composition, may be molded into any shape, and resists deterioration in the presence of corrosive chemicals. The claim that Koroconal does not swell and adhere in cold waters is made for oil-pooling problems where swelling is objectionable. It offers resistance to light and oxidation, and possesses long flowing life. *Obsolescence*

AVIATION, February, 1935

ENGINE ACCESSORIES

Tachometer

General Electric Company,
Schenectady, New York

G-E Aircraft Tachometer operates on generator-frequency or principle. Calibrated for synchronous rotation, pointer remains steady under all conditions. Generating unit has no brushes or slip-rings. Maintenance is reduced through direct-driven rotor. Indication made from 0 to 2,500 r.p.m. without generating unit, from 0 to 4,250, but wide range of optional drives and indicated speeds available.

AVIATION, February, 1935

AIRPORT EQUIPMENT

Lamps

Washington Electric & Manufacturing Company,
East Pittsburgh, Pa.

NEW signal lamp, applicable to remote taxiway beacons, aluminum prefabricated color which provides known color and, as lamps are changed by automatic device, from the element position. Signal wire illuminates lens shadow. A straight filament end withstands the strain of constant flexing. S-11 clear glass bulb, maximum overall length of 26 in., available in seven coverings.

AVIATION, February, 1935

LABORATORY EQUIPMENT

Mikrohemometer

Shallcross Manufacturing Company,
760 Macdonald Blvd., Collegeville, Pa.

MILKROHEMOMETERS Nos. 678 and 679 measure temperature lower than that covered by ordinary Wheatstone Bridge. Applicable for testing of aircraft fueling and shipping of aviation systems. No reference curves or charts required, actual resistance being read from instrument scale. *Example:* No. 679 (75-3-679-00-0075-002); No. 678 (0-3-678)

AVIATION, February, 1935

MISCELLANEOUS

Blue-print paper

C. F. Pease Company,
113-121 N. Franklin St., Chicago, Ill.

THE new Pease "K" speed paper and cloth is non-bleeding and color fast, enabling prints to be fully exposed or even over-exposed without affecting color or clarity of outline. Accommodates practically all classes of drawings in one printing speed. Available in standard weights, lengths, widths, rag stock centers, in rolls or in sheets. Free samples on request.

AVIATION, February, 1935

SHOP EQUIPMENT

Spring guns

Beale Manufacturing Company,
1131 Cornell Ave., Chicago, Ill.

TWO new spring guns, "Thor" 3 and 6, are announced. No. 3 is a knock-up and shoring gun, equipped with overhead trigger. No. 6, a combination knock-up and general service gun with conventional pistol grip. Outstanding feature of both guns is adjustability of spray while in use. Sprays may be widened or narrowed as it is moved over work. Heads are arranged to avoid obstructing vision.

AVIATION, February, 1935

RADIO EQUIPMENT

Transmitter

Western Electric Company,
295 Broadway, New York City

WE 14-A Transmitter, with 6 A. Rectifier is multi-frequency, crystal controlled for telephone, CW, or use telegraph transmission, housed in individual metal cabinet 8 1/2 x 20. Freely adjustable to use frequencies, 2 to 181 megacycles. Output 400 watts at 2 to 12 megacycles, 300 at 12 to 18.1. Power requirements: 4 KVA, 240/260 volt, 60 cycle, three phase.

AVIATION, February, 1935

SHOP EQUIPMENT

Acetylene generator

The Linde Air Products Company,
30 East 42nd Street, New York, N. Y.

TYPE MP-4 generator is a portable unit of relatively large capacity for shop or field use. It is of the automatic grooved feed type, set normally to deliver gas at 12 lb. per sq. in. but adjustable over a range of about 2 lb. per sq. in. Capacity, 150 lb. of C_2H_2 carbide, to produce 300 cu ft. of gas per hour. Dimensions, length, 67 in., overall diameter 42 in.

AVIATION, February, 1935

B E N D I X

THE REASON OF AVIATION SAFETY

BENDIX AIRPLANE BRAKES for Hydraulic Operation



AIRPLANE WHEELS •
BRAKES • PILOT SEATS
AND PNEUDRAULIC
SHOCK STRUTS

FOR "STREAMLINE" WHEELS
of all sizes above 21 inches

★

BENDIX PRODUCTS CORPORATION
AIRPLANE WHEEL AND BRAKE DIVISION • SOUTH BEND, INDIANA
(Subsidiary of Bendix Aviation Corporation)

"Quality must have



SAFETY—You won't need to "chafe" with Texaco Airplane Oil. They will maintain pressure under the greatest extremes of flying conditions.

SPEED—Many "ground runs" have been made with Texaco Airplane Oil. Their exceptional lubricating quality reduces friction, increases engine pull.

ECONOMY—Texaco Airplane Oil will lower overhead expense. There is a proved grade available for every type of engine—every type of service.



TEXACO Aviation

TEXACO AIRPLANE OIL ★ TEXACO AVIATION GASOLINE
FOR RUNWAYS, HANGAR FLOORS, APRONS AND DUST

THERE IS AN EXTRA MARGIN OF SAFETY, SPEED

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